

# Statistics 210A Lecture 8 Notes

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## 1 Bayes Estimation

### 1.1 Recap: Lower bound for unbiased estimation

Last time, we talked about the **score function**

$$\nabla \ell(\theta; x),$$

where  $\ell(\theta; x) = \log p_\theta(x)$  is a log-likelihood. We saw some properties of the score function, like

$$\mathbb{E}_\theta[\nabla \ell(\theta; x)] = 0.$$

The Fisher information was

$$J(\theta) = \text{Var}_\theta(\nabla \ell(\theta; x)) = -\mathbb{E}[\nabla^2 \ell(\theta; x)].$$

If  $g(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_\theta[\delta(X)]$  with  $g : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , then

$$\nabla g(\theta) = \text{Cov}_\theta(\delta(X), \nabla \ell(\theta; X)).$$

Combining this with Cauchy-Schwarz gives the **Cramér-Rao lower bound**

$$\text{Var}_\theta(\delta(X)) \geq \frac{\dot{g}(\theta)^2}{J(\theta)}, \quad d = 1$$

with multivariate form

$$\text{Var}_\theta(\delta(X)) \geq \nabla g(\theta)^\top J(\theta)^{-1} \nabla g(\theta), \quad d \geq 1.$$

This gives us a lower bound on how small we can make our risk with unbiased estimation.

**Example 1.1.** Let  $X \sim \text{Binom}(n, \theta)$ . Consider two estimators  $\delta_0(x) = x/n$  and  $\delta_1(X) = \frac{x+3}{n+6}$ . The second estimator weights the estimation more towards  $1/2$ . How can we say that one is better than the other?

To compare these estimators, we previously ruled out all unbiased estimators. However, we can alternatively try to reduce the *average risk*.

## 1.2 Some problems with unbiased estimation

Unbiased estimation is not always desirable.

**Example 1.2.** Suppose  $X \sim \text{Binom}(50, \theta)$  and  $g(\theta) = \mathbb{P}_\theta(X \geq 25)$ . The UMVU estimator is

$$\delta(X) = \mathbb{1}_{\{X \geq 25\}},$$

which is somewhat ridiculous because if we saw  $X = 25$ , we would assume this probability is 1.

**Example 1.3.** Suppose  $X \sim N_d(\theta, I_d)$ , where we want to estimate  $\|\theta\|_2^2$ . The UMVU estimator is  $\|X\|_2^2 - d$  because

$$\mathbb{E}[\|X\|_2^2] = \|\theta\|_2^2 + d.$$

This estimator can be  $< 0$ , while  $\|\theta\|_2^2$  cannot be. So we can always improve on the estimator by instead considering  $(\|X\|_2^2 - d)^+$  instead.

## 1.3 Bayes estimation from a frequentist viewpoint

We have the model  $\mathcal{P} = \{P_\theta : \theta \in \Omega\}$  for the data  $X$ , a loss function  $L(\theta; d)$ , and the risk  $R(\theta; \delta) = \mathbb{E}_\theta[L(\theta; \delta(X))]$ .

**Definition 1.1.** The **Bayes risk** is

$$\begin{aligned} R_{\text{Bayes}}(\Lambda; \delta) &= \int_{\Omega} R(\theta; \delta) d\Lambda(\theta) \\ &= \mathbb{E}[R(\Theta; \delta(X))] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[L(\Theta; \delta(X))], \end{aligned}$$

where  $\Theta \sim \Lambda$  and  $X | \Theta = \theta \sim P_\theta$ . This is the average-case risk, integrated with respect to a measure  $\Lambda$  on  $\Omega$ , called the **prior**.

For now, we assume  $\Lambda(\Omega) = 1$ . Later, we will allow for  $\Lambda(\Omega) = \infty$ , which is called an **improper prior**.

**Definition 1.2.**  $\delta(X)$  is a **Bayes estimator** if it minimizes  $R_{\text{Bayes}}(\Lambda, \delta)$ .

This definition depends on  $\mathcal{P}$ ,  $\Lambda$ , and  $L$ . How do we find a Bayes estimator? Fortunately, they are easy to find.

**Theorem 1.1.** Suppose  $\Theta \sim \Lambda$  and  $X | \Theta = \theta \sim P_\theta$ . Assume that  $L(\theta; d) \geq 0$  for all  $\theta, d$  and that  $R_{\text{Bayes}}(\Lambda; \delta_0) < \infty$  for some  $\delta_0(X)$ . Then

$$\delta_\Lambda(x) \in \arg \min_d \mathbb{E}[L(\Theta; d) | X = x] \text{ for a.e. } x \iff \delta_\Lambda(X) \text{ is Bayes.}$$

So we split up the problem by solving it for any fixed  $x$ .

*Proof.* ( $\implies$ ): Let  $\delta$  be any other estimator. Then

$$\begin{aligned} R_{\text{Bayes}}(\Lambda; \delta) &= \mathbb{E}[L(\Theta; \delta(X))] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[L(\Theta; \delta(X)) \mid X]] \\ &\geq \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[L(\Theta; \delta_\Lambda(X)) \mid X]] \\ &= R_{\text{Bayes}}(\Lambda; \delta_\Lambda). \end{aligned}$$

In particular,  $\delta_\Lambda$  has finite Bayes risk because we could plug in  $\delta_0$  for  $\delta$ .

( $\impliedby$ ): By contradiction. Let  $E_x(d) := \mathbb{E}[L(\Theta; d) \mid X = x]$ . Define

$$\delta^*(x) = \begin{cases} \delta_\Lambda(x) & \text{if } \delta_\Lambda(x) \in \arg \min E_x(d) \\ \delta_0(x) & \text{if } E_x(\delta_0(x)) < E_x(\delta_\Lambda(x)) \\ d^*(x) & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

where  $E_x(d^*(x)) < E_x(\delta_\Lambda(x))$ . By construction, we have

$$E_x(\delta^*(X)) \leq E_x(\delta_0(X))$$

a.s., so  $R_{\text{Bayes}}(\Lambda, \delta^*) < \infty$ . We also have

$$E_x(\delta^*(X)) \leq E_x(\delta_\Lambda(X))$$

a.s., with  $<$  on a positive measure set. So

$$R_{\text{Bayes}}(\Lambda, \delta^*) \leq R_{\text{Bayes}}(\delta_\Lambda(X)),$$

which is a contradiction. □

## 1.4 Posterior distributions

**Definition 1.3.** The conditional distribution of  $\Theta$  given  $X$  is called the **posterior distribution**.

**Definition 1.4.** When we have densities  $\lambda(\theta)$  for a prior and the likelihood  $p_\theta(x)$ , then the **marginal density** for  $X$  is

$$q(x) = \int_{\Lambda} \lambda(\theta) p_\theta(x) d\mu(\theta).$$

The **posterior density** is

$$\lambda(\theta \mid x) = \frac{\lambda(\theta) p_\theta(x)}{q(x)}.$$

In this case, the Bayes estimator is given by

$$\delta_\Lambda = \arg \min_d \int_{\Omega} L(\theta; d) \lambda(\theta | x) d\theta.$$

**Proposition 1.1.** *If  $L(\theta; d) = (g(\theta) - d)^2$  is the squared error, then the Bayes estimator is the posterior mean  $\mathbb{E}[g(\Theta) | X]$  of  $g(\Theta)$ .*

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[(g(\Theta) - \delta(X))^2 | X] &= \mathbb{E}[(g(\Theta) - \mathbb{E}[g(\Theta) | X] + \mathbb{E}[g(\Theta) | X] - \delta(X))^2 | X] \\ &= \text{Var}(g(\Theta) | X) + (\mathbb{E}[g(\Theta) | X] - \delta(X))^2, \end{aligned}$$

where the cross term is 0 because  $\mathbb{E}[g(\Theta) - \mathbb{E}[g(\Theta) | X] | X] = 0$ . This equals  $\text{Var}(g(\Theta) | X)$  if  $\delta(X) \stackrel{\text{a.s.}}{=} \mathbb{E}[g(\Theta) | X]$ .  $\square$

Let's now consider the **weighted square error**  $L(\theta; d) = w(\theta)(g(\theta) - d)^2$ . For example, we might take the relative error  $L(\theta; d) = (\frac{\theta - d}{\theta})^2$ .

**Proposition 1.2.** *For the weighted square error  $L(\theta; d) = w(\theta)(g(\theta) - d)^2$ , the Bayes estimator is*

$$\delta_\Lambda(X) = \frac{\mathbb{E}[w(\Theta)g(\Theta) | X]}{\mathbb{E}[w(\Theta)]}.$$

**Example 1.4** (Beta-Binomial). Suppose  $X | \Theta = \theta \sim \text{Binom}(n, \theta) = \theta^x(1 - \theta)^{n-x} \binom{n}{x}$  with prior  $\Theta \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta) = \theta^{\alpha-1}(1 - \theta)^{\beta-1} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}$ . Note that in  $X | \Theta = \theta$ ,  $\theta$  is a parameter, whereas in the prior, we are giving a distribution over values of  $\theta$ . The posterior distribution is

$$\lambda(\theta | x) = \frac{\lambda(\theta)p_\theta(x)}{q(x)}$$

Since this will integrate to 1 in  $\theta$ , we will ignore the quantities not related to  $\theta$ .

$$\begin{aligned} &\propto_\theta \theta^{\alpha-1}(1 - \theta)^{\beta-1} \theta^x(1 - \theta)^{n-x} \\ &= \theta^{x+\alpha-1}(1 - \theta)^{n-x+\beta-1} \\ &\propto_\theta \text{Beta}(x + \alpha, n - x + \beta). \end{aligned}$$

So the posterior distribution is a different Beta distribution. Using what we know about the Beta distribution, we have

$$\mathbb{E}[\Theta | X] = \frac{X + \alpha}{n + \alpha + \beta}$$

The interpretation is that we have  $k = \alpha + \beta$  "pseudo-trials" with  $\alpha$  successes. We can write

$$\delta_\Lambda(x) = \frac{x}{n} \cdot \frac{n}{n + \alpha + \beta} + \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} \cdot \frac{\alpha + \beta}{n + \alpha + \beta}$$

If  $n \gg \alpha + \beta$ , we can say “the data swamps the prior,” whereas for  $n \ll \alpha + \beta$ , we can say “the prior swamps the data.”

**Example 1.5** (Normal mean). Suppose  $X | \Theta = \theta \sim N(\theta, \sigma^2) \propto_{\theta} e^{-(x-\theta)^2/(2\sigma^2)}$ , where  $\sigma^2$  is known. Take the prior  $\Theta \sim N(\mu, \tau^2) \propto_{\theta} e^{-(\theta-\mu)^2/(2\tau^2)}$ . The posterior is

$$\lambda(\theta | x) \propto_{\theta} \exp\left(\theta\left(\frac{x}{\sigma^2} + \frac{\mu}{\tau^2}\right) - \frac{\theta^2}{2}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{\tau^2}\right)\right).$$

After some algebra,

$$\propto_{\theta} N\left(\frac{x/\sigma^2 + \mu/\tau^2}{1/\sigma^2 + 1/\tau^2}, \frac{1}{1/\sigma^2 + 1/\tau^2}\right).$$

The posterior mean is

$$\mathbb{E}[\Theta | X] = X \frac{1/\sigma^2}{1/\sigma^2 + 1/\tau^2} + \mu \frac{1/\tau^2}{1/\sigma^2 + 1/\tau^2},$$

which is called a **precision-weighted average**.

These examples show that when calculating  $\lambda(\theta | x)$ , we should ignore the parts not depending on  $\theta$  and try to recognize the resulting shape of the density as a distribution we know already.